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# Subtropical urban turfs: Carbon and nitrogen pools and the role of enzyme activity

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#### ABSTRACT

Urban grasslands not only provide a recreational venue for urban residents, but also 14 sequester organic carbon (OC) in vegetation and soils through photosynthesis, and release 15 carbon dioxide through respiration, which largely contribute to carbon storage and fluxes at 16 regional and global scales. We investigated organic carbon and nitrogen pools in subtropical 17 turfs and found that dissolved organic carbon (DOC) and dissolved organic nitrogen (DON) 18 were regulated by several factors including microbial activity which is indicated by soil 19 enzymatic activity. We observed a vertical variation and different temporal patterns in both 20 soil DOC, DON and enzyme activities, which decreased significantly with increasing soil 21 depths. We further found that concentration of soil DON was linked with turf age. There 22 were correlations between grass biomass and soil properties, and soil enzyme activities. In 23 particular, soil bulk density was significantly correlated with soil moisture and soil OC. In 24 addition, DOC correlated significantly with DON. Significant negative correlations were also 25 observed between soil total dissolved nitrogen (TDN) and grass biomass of Axonopus 26 compressus and Zoysia matrella. Specifically, grass biomass was significantly correlated with 27 the soil activity of urease and  $\beta$ -glucosidase. Soil NO<sub>3</sub>-N concentration also showed 28 negative correlations with the activity of both  $\beta$ -glucosidase and protease but no significant 29 correlation between cellulase and soil properties or grass biomass. Our study demonstrated 30 a relationship between soil C and N dynamics and soil enzymes that could be modulated to 31 enhance soil organic C pools through management and maintenance practices. 32 © 2017 The Research Center for Eco-Environmental Sciences, Chinese Academy of Sciences. 33 Published by Elsevier B.V. 34

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#### 46 Introduction

47Urban ecosystems are exposed to higher air and soil temper-48 atures than their surroundings due to urban heat island (UHI) effect, and thus are more vulnerable to global warming. One 49of the consequences of the UHI effect is an increase in 50respiration rates in urban vegetation and soils due to elevated 51temperature, which in turn leads to enhanced microbial and 52soil enzyme activities (Davidson and Janssens, 2006; Karhu 53et al., 2014). Allison et al. (2010) presented a microbial-enzyme 54

model in which microbial biomass and soil enzymes work 55 together as catalysts in the conversion of soil organic carbon 56 (SOC) to dissolved organic carbon (DOC), which is key step for 57 SOC decomposition. In addition, SOC accounts for more than 58 60% of the global soil C pool, which is more than three times 59 the size of the atmospheric pool and plays a critical role in the 60 soil C fluxes and the global C cycle (Lal, 2004). 61

Dissolved organic matter (DOM) plays a critical role in the 62 ecosystems as it mediates many chemical and biological 63 reactions (Chantigny, 2003). DOC refers to all dissolved organic 64

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C-containing molecules in water or soils (McDowell and Likens, 05 1988). Despite the fact that DOC accounts for only a small part of 66 the soil C, it is involved in many important soil biological 67 processes and serves as a transfer means for C between 68 ecosystems, regulating the sequestration and export of soil 69 organic C pools. On the other hand, urban ecosystems have 70 71 lower C inputs than natural ecosystems due to less litter addition, and consequently lower decomposition rate and C 72 73 release (Churkina, 2012). Therefore, it represents a critical factor 74 in global C cycle.

In addition to DOC, dissolved organic nitrogen (DON) is 75another major component of the soil microenvironment. DON 76 commonly refers to the organic forms of nitrogen such as 77 polypeptides, free amino acids or other nitrogenous organic 78 materials either excreted by living organisms or released from 79 decomposed life forms (Neff and Asner, 2001; Qualls and 06 Richardson, 2003). In soils, DON is present in two different 81 pools: amino acids and proteins which were readily decomposed 82 by microbes; and high molecular weight DONs that undergo 83 slow turnover (Jones et al., 2004). In ecosystems with little 84 anthropogenic N input, vegetation and hydrology play critical 85 roles in N retention and loss (Cairns and Lajtha, 2005). In general, 86 DON is a major source of N for microorganisms and plants, 87 88 which in turn contribute to local climate changes by generating as well as absorbing various greenhouse gases. Thus, DON 89 90 contributes both directly and indirectly to local and global 91 ecosystems. Interactions among microbes, plants and soil 92control the level of DON and DOC, and affect climate change.

Soil enzymes play a key role in nutrient cycling, which 93 involved many biochemical processes in terms of degradation, 9495 transformation and mineralization of soil organic materials (Dick et al., 1996; Sinsabaugh, 2010), thereby contributing to the 96 stock and export of soil DOC and DON pools. On the other hand, 97 soil enzymes have been reported to be sensitive to soil 98 conditions such as moisture, temperature, and field manage-99 ment practices (Bandick and Dick, 1999; Green and Oleksyszyn, 100 2002) such as tillage (Kandeler et al., 1999b), burning and 101 fertilization (Ajwa et al., 1999). 102

However, little is known about the role of soil enzymes in 103 regulating the stock and export of soil organic matter in urban 104 ecosystems. Therefore, SOC, DOC, DON, soil respiration, 105106 microbial biomass and enzyme pools should be investigated further in urban ecosystems to determine their interactive 107 influences on C cycle at multiple scales in local, regional and 108 global levels. This study assessed (1) DOC and DON exports 109 and their effect on soil C pool in urban turfs; (2) soil enzyme 07 activities and their role in governing soil DOC and DON pools 111 in urban turfs with different grass species in metropolitan 112Shenzhen and Hong Kong in southern China. 113

#### 114 1. Materials and methods

#### 116 **1.1. Site description**

We studied selected urban turfs in Hong Kong (22°15′44″N, 118 114°10′ 41″E) and Shenzhen (22°32′43″N, 114°04′05″E), China.
We chose turfs according to the following criteria: (1) turf area larger than 1000 m<sup>2</sup>; (2) grass species commonly employed in subtropical cities in China; and (3) different types of turfs with wide turf ages, including lawns (located in urban parks and 122 campus), athletic (football and cricket) fields, green roofs, 123 roadside green belts, which were established from 1957 to 124 2011 (Table 1).

There were five grass species in the studied turfs. Axonopus 126 compressus was found in most turfs in Hong Kong, while Zoysia 127 matrella was the dominant species in Shenzhen. Zoysia japonica, 128 Cynodon dactylon  $\times$  C. transvaalensis and Lolium perenne were 129 also grown in sports fields in Hong Kong. We collected soil and 130 grass samples from 14 turfs in Hong Kong and another 14 in 131 Shenzhen (Table 1) during the wet season from 15 August to 132 27 September 2012. 133

#### 1.2. Soil sampling and analysis

The sampling followed the methods as described by Kong 135 et al. (2014). We selected 6–18 points based on the size of turf, 136 types of grass species, locations and phases for soil sampling 137 from all the field turfs. Generally, for turfs with one grass 138 species, 9 points were sampled for park size below 10,000 m<sup>2</sup> 139 and 15 points for size above 10,000 m<sup>2</sup>. For turfs with more 140 than two grass species, 15 points were sampled. Specifically, 141 18 points were sampled for turfs located far from each other in 142 the same park, including Sha Tin Park (STP), Kowloon Park 143 (KLP), Yuen Long Park (YLP) and Tai Po Waterfront Park (TPWP). 144

Soils were sampled from 0 to 5 cm, 5–10 cm and 10–15 cm 145 with a soil corer of 5 cm in diameter and 20 cm in length. 146 Samples were placed in plastic bags and delivered to the 147 laboratory for analysis. Twenty grams of field-moist soils 148 were extracted by 100 mL distilled water and filtered through 149 Whatman No. 1 papers. Soil filtrates were used for the 150 determination of ammonium-N (NH<sub>4</sub>-N), nitrate-N (NO<sub>3</sub>-N), 151 DON and DOC concentrations. NH<sub>4</sub>-N and NO<sub>3</sub>-N were deter- 152 mined using a SAN++ Segmented Flow Analyzer (Skalar Analyt- 153 ical B.V., Breda, Netherlands). Total dissolved nitrogen (TDN) was 154 determined using a Shimadzu TOC 5000A Total Organic Carbon 155 Analyzer with a TNM-1 total nitrogen detector. DON was 156 calculated by the difference: DON = TDN - (NO<sub>3</sub> + NH<sub>4</sub>). DOC 157 was determined by the TOC 5000A TOC Analyzer. Measurement 158 of soil pH, soil water content, and SOC following the methods as 159 described by Kong et al. (2014). We then performed Pearson 160 Correlation Analysis between DOC and DON both in soil and 161 grass shoot biomass, temperature, and soil water content for all 162 locations. 163

To understand the contribution of soil enzymes to DOC 164 and DON, we determined soil enzymes in similar fashion as 165 described above. Specifically, we measured the enzyme 166 activities of the soil samples collected from the urban turfs 167 in Hong Kong and Shenzhen. Both vertical changes and age 168 correlation were compared among all the turf sites. 169

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#### 1.3. Grass sampling and C analysis

Grass sampling and C content analysis followed the methods 171 by Kong et al. (2014). Briefly, aboveground grass shoots 172  $(25 \times 15 \text{ cm}^2)$  were collected from all turfs, and oven dried at 173  $105^{\circ}$ C for 48 hr to obtain the dry-weight biomass. Grass 174 samples were cut and analyzed with a TOC analyzer to 175 determine the concentrations of TC, IC and OC, which were 176 used to calculate the amount of grass C stock by multiplying 177

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